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WINNIPEG SEPTEMBER 27-OCTOBER 1st, 1970

NATIONAL CONFERENCE

"URBANISATION AND LEISURE"

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In This Issue,

Several articles on general issues and principles are presented along with articles more specifically related to Leisure planning and development in Canada and abroad as an introduction to some of the problems related to the theme of the Annual National Conference to be held in Winnipeg, September 27 to October 1st, 1970.

Dans ces pages,

Plusieurs articles traitant de problèmes et principes généraux de planification urbaine sont présentés avec des études plus spécifiques de certains aspects canadiens et étrangers du thème Urbanisation et Loisir, en guise d'introduction à certains problèmes qui seront étudiés au cours de la Conférence nationale annuelle de Winnipeg,

Editor,

André Lapointe
National Director

Editeur,

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PRESIDENT'S MESSAGE

DU PRESIDENT

Members of the Association and the readership of the **Review** will receive this third issue of our 1970 program shortly before the Annual Planning Conference which is being held in Winnipeg this year on the subject of "Urbanization and Leisure". Several of the articles in this issue were chosen because of their relationship to the wide range of problems which will be studied and discussed at that Conference.

The Annual Planning Conference of the Association is one of our major programs at the national level. This year we expect to attract a record number of participants to Winnipeg in view of the very broad interest in the subject matter of the Conference and also because the conference coincides with the Manitoba Centennial Year. An immense voluntary effort on the part of our members as well as our staff has gone into the preparation for this conference. The difficulty of the subject to be studied has not been overlooked and contributions from a wide variety of experts, officials and knowledgeable participants have been sought. The Keynote speaker, Mr. Ian McHarg, of the University of Pennsylvania, needs little introduction to all those concerned with ecological planning problems. The Federal Minister responsible for Housing, Mr. Andras, is expected to make a major contribution from the federal point of view to the discussion of the problems involved with urbanization in light of the need to plan for leisure in the years ahead. And a large number of other major contributions from various levels of government, universities and the private sector, will contribute to make this conference one of the most important ever organized by the Association.

As President of the Association, I invite you to join with us at this important conference and as a resident of Winnipeg, I extend a most cordial welcome and can assure you of a memorable time in this, our Manitoba Centennial Year. I am convinced that the topic of the Conference is worthy of concentrated study and review and that the results emanating from this conference will be of great significance in planning the development of the Canadian environment in the years ahead.

Les membres de l'Association et lecteurs de la Revue recevront ce troisième cahier de l'année 1970 peu de temps avant notre Conférence nationale annuelle qui doit avoir lieu à Winnipeg sur le thème: "Urbanisation et Loisirs". Plusieurs articles publiés ici ont été choisis à cause de leur relation à certains des très nombreux problèmes qui seront abordés au cours de la Conférence.

La Conférence nationale annuelle constitue un de nos programmes majeurs au niveau national. Cette année, nous attendons un nombre très important de participants à Winnipeg vu l'intérêt multiple du thème et parce que la Conférence de Winnipeg coincide avec l'année du Centenaire du Manitoba. Un immense effort bénévole de la part de nos membres et de nos cadres a été fourni pour préparer cette conférence. La difficulté du sujet n'a pas été sous-estimée et des contributions ont été obtenues de la part d'experts, de représentants officiels et de citoyens avertis. Le principal conférencier, M. Ian McHarg, de l'Université de Pensylvanie, est bien connu de tous ceux qui s'intéressent à l'aspect écologique de la planification du milieu. Le ministre fédéral responsable du logement, M. R. Andras, doit aussi fournir une importante contribution en définissant le point du gouvernement fédéral sur la question. Enfin, plusieurs autres contributions de premier ordre feront de cette Conférence une des plus significatives de toutes celles que l'Association a tenues dans le passé.

En tant que Président, je vous invite donc à participer à cet important évènement et comme résident de Winnipeg je tiens à vous assurer qu'il s'agira pour tous d'une occasion mémorable en cette année du centenaire de la Province. Je suis convaincu que le sujet traité et l'étude qui en sera faite seront d'une signification majeure pour le développement du milieu de vie canadien au cours des prochaines années.

Allan G. Moffatt, P.Eng.,
National President.

The city in its plastic realization of the needs and ideals of man, is without doubt one of the highest forms of collective art. It is designed both by man and for man. Its outline, its form, its play of solid and void, its character, its scale, whether these stem from man, its basic organism, or from its materials; from its site, from its past or present life style, or from the importance of its location, population, and specialization; these are the primary elements which usually constitute its personality. The city is a tool for the production and exchange of goods and services. That is perhaps one of its major functions. But it is also a place where people live, study, play, worship, or have children. It may be a place of magic or of terror, of beauty or of ugliness.

Cities have been the chief, if not the only laboratory, for experimentation in living, for interrupting the continuity of traditions and encouraging new ideas, new patterns, and new expectations whereby human advances have been made. Cities have tolerated deviation from the norms of conduct, have allowed relations not elsewhere permitted; they have encouraged individuality; they have fostered creativity in almost all human endeavors, but more especially in art, literature, music, the professions, and science.

Cities throughout their long histories have faced persistent problems of urban living, and, according to the prevailing climate of opinion, they have usually ignored them or compromised with them. Sometimes they have even attempted to cope with them. Cities which have been exposed to catastrophies such as flood, fire, epidemic and war, have exhibited an amazing capacity for recovery, often emerging stronger and richer, with even enhanced capacities for survival and urban living, such as many of the major European cities which we know today. But never before in the history of mankind have cities either been confronted with such magnitudes of people and complexity or had so little time to come to grips with them, since the trend from rural to urban living has proceeded at such speed.

The form of the city has always been and shall continue to be one of the merciless indicators of the state of man's culture, civilization, and aspirations. This form is today generally determined by the multiplicity of decisions- social, political, economic, and design - made by the people who live in it. In many periods throughout history, these decisions have interacted to produce forces of such clarity and from that noble cities have been born. Particularly in North American cities, man has been denied the satisfaction of his need for order, identification, participation, and esthetic enjoyment that rests the soul or stimulates the mind, and yet it has been said that the 'humane' city must not only serve us well or be functional but it must also please our senses.

It appears that the cities most generally admired and from which the inhabitants are most reluctant to be servered are precisely those cities with highly developed personalities. Anyone can prepare such a list - Paris, Rome, Venice, Amsterdam, London, Peking; the names are not likely to differ greatly. If one were also to include North American cities, recognition would in all probability be given to New York, Washington, Boston, San Francisco, Montreal, and Quebec. One thing is clear however, that these cities always make a deep physical impression and present strong esthetic characteristics even though these may not always be man-made, and may be attributed in some instances to the natural qualities of the site. In the majority of these cities, at some periods in their history, certain groups or individuals, usually with clear aspirations and intent, have imposed their impress, very often in the form of a strong design 'structure'.

We know that a city's character or personality is made up of a great number of diverse factors including sensory stimuli as well as visual - smells, noises, tastes, people, history, associations; in addition to its sights. A city is not architecture alone, perhaps not even principally. Most of the city's stimuli are actually outside the control of the city or urban designer. He alone cannot write the whole symphony, however, we do know that the design 'structure' of the city, which he is able to orchestrate, in displaying sensitivity to all of the other inputs and to the nature of the site, appears to be one of the most potent factors in determining the responses of those who experience its force.

"The first level of urbanity is physical. There are places of great silence, even reverence, and

Norman Pressman
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Town Planning & Urban Design

Town Planning & Social Issues

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'Architecture is one of the few fields which keeps alive the utopian tradition of social thought'. In these words, Robert Gutman, the American sociologist, expressed what struck him when he first-encountered the architectural profession; and no-where is the proposition more clearly demonstrated than in the field of town planning. The construction of ideal cities has constantly excited the architectural imagination. Always it has been an attempt to achieve *social* ideals through *physical* design. Thomas Reiner's study of the ideal community in urban planning showed very clearly that the values with which city planners had typically been concerned clustered around two modes. On the one hand were criteria of order, efficiency and convenience; on the other, the criteria were community, co-operation, creativity and diversity. They assumed that a city's social and economic life relfected its physical arrangements and that 'individual or social ills arise from a malfunctioning or improverished environment'. Hence the idea that well designed cities—in an architectural sense—would be utopias in a social sense.

Associated with such misconceptions is the architect's reluctance to consider the possibility that a physical design solution may not be by any means the most appropriate means of achieving socially desirable ends: that, as Gutman has noted, community spirit, for example, may be more effectively influenced by decisions about the *tenure* of property than by decisions about the shape of buildings or how they are sited.

Happily, however, the situation appears to be changing. The plan for the new town of Skelmersdale, for example, published only five years ago devoted only ten per cent of its pages to social planning, which occupies over a quarter of the recent interim report on Milton Keynes; while the *content* of the Milton Keynes report clearly expresses the fact that consultants on social development and on urban society had been included in the planning team.

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Quality of the Urban Environment

One of the valid concerns, however, that planners of an architectural persuation have brought to the practice of planning has been for the quality of the urban environment—as something to which people, *as human beings*, and not simply in their partial roles as employees or as shoppers, react. Certainly, physical design—the visual scene—contributes decisively to the 'feel' of a town. But what is more interesting to the sociologist is the social *ethos* of towns. This may show itself in differences such as the fact that the audience for the Scottish National Orchestra in Dundee is 1,200 and in Aberdeen 1,500 (though both have populations of about the same size) and that in Aberdeen, but not in Dundee, the orchestra is always afforded a civic reception which has made it possible to build up there a relationship with the city very much closer and more sympathetic than has been possible in Dundee. Such differences are not easily explained by referring to the differences between concert halls or to the geographical location of the two cities. For they are, in my opinion, better understood in terms of the social structural characteristics of these various cities. And it is upon an understanding of such factors as well as upon architectural design that the planning of the urban environment must rest.

The starting-point of a scientific approach to the analysis of such differences is the assumption that they are not random. Though the way a town develops may certainly be influenced by one or two leading individuals, their initiatives take place within a context of social, political and economic organization which may be more or less favourable to, more or less capable of being won over by, particular interests. The freedom of action of a Dubcek in Czechoslovakia or an O'Neill in Ulster, for example, has been palpably restricted by the structures within which they have had to work. Thus, an explanation of the differences between Dundee and Aberdeen might well begin with the fact that Aberdeen was from mediaeval times a much more important commercial city, as well as the location of both a cathedral and a university, which Dundee was not. I would expect that these institutional differences would, by the early 19th century, have produced very different patterns of social and political organization in the two towns; and would have generated in Aberdeen a more cultured ethos, a more substantial civic organization, and no doubt, greater wealth which qualified its adaptation to the industrial and commercial growth of the last century. In the absence of such features, Dundee appears to have made a much cruder response to the developing jute industry, which was very largely uninfluenced by any wider cultivation on the part of its citizenry.

Organization Theory

Now the kind of theory which suggests the sort of approach to the study of urban environments which I have in mind, is what is called organi-

places of robust noise; places of even bombastic monumentally and places of intimate scale; places of pure visual experience and places where the experience is confusing, even sometimes corrupt. The city has perceptible foci and places of rendezvous. Its experience is never desolate visually, though sometimes, perhaps often, it may be quite neutral, the better to frame the great visual experience that the rare, magnificent work of architecture provides better against a natural background." 'Who has not been affected by the city's food and flower markets, its sidewalks, its trees and sculpture, its grand squares and fountains, its boulevards and parks, its sidewalk cafés (in those cities which possess this humanized social institution), its arcades and cobblestones, its street signs and lamp-posts, its chimney pots and its canals. When a city possesses that happy synthesis of both architectural and non-architectural elements, and where each of these has understood and respected the others, a strong image is formed. But without the skillful handling of the urban and architectural elements, this image would be practically non-existent. That person who has acquired mastery in the articulation of these elements which together create the physical city, we shall call the urban designer.

It seems clear then, that urban design, is that part of the city planning process which deals with esthetics and which determines the order and form of the city. The esthetic characteristics of the city as an entity appear to belong to the domain of city planning as a part of its broad concern for the general physical organization of the city. These esthetic characteristics of cities must ultimately derive from a consideration of the social, economic, and physical characteristics of urban life, about which knowledge can perhaps only be acquired by some of the methods of the social sciences, and the esthetic objectives must be determined, expressed, and carried out as an integral part of the local process of city planning.

But what the designer contributes to the process of city building is not only the final form of a concept or model of the city largely given to him by others. He also contributes valuable hypotheses, to be tested by research before execution, but in any event leading to the creation of new and alternative modes of urban life, as well as urban forms, which once realized, research may be able to confirm. This is not to contend that art is experiment, but to argue that design is the only *creative* element in the city building process. The rest is analysis, projection, and implementation.

"Based on the usual practice of architecture, where it is equally false, it is commonly assumed that the urban designer commences with a 'program' in which the utilitarian conditions of the city are set forth, and which it is his business to reflect and resolve in the design. So notorious has this lack of relationship become that the commonest criticism of urban designers is that they have 'ignored the program'. The fallacy of this approach is that design deals with potentialities, and no program is based on more than the sum of current experience. To design too close to such a program, therefore, is to condemn the new design to repeat the mistakes and limitations of the existing city. Unless we are to foreclose all prospect of forward development in our ideas of the city, and in the design of future cities, we must expect a larger contribution by designers; indeed, demand it of them, not simply at the end but at all stages of the urban design process. Fresh possibilities, offered by designers in the earliest sketches, should be received as inputs to survey and research efforts. If this is not done, the designer commences with a largely sterile analysis and sets of data that are scarcely related to the problems of design. Instead, we need dynamic design to which society can respond, and through which it can develop." [2]

Briefly then, the urban designer's unique contribution to the processes of city organization lies essentially in his ability to bring the abstractions of verbal planning concepts and numerical programs, as well as his own concepts, into concrete three-dimensional form and to fulfill the goals upon which all agree. Because the process of urban design must be interwoven with all the processes and forces of city building, the urban designer must be fully knowledgeable and experienced in all of the related activities to his field and must be an integral part of a team.

Only if we can bring together all of the interests involved at all levels of decision-making to share in feedback, can we have better cities. If the disciplines of planning and urban design are not considered parts of a greater whole, then urban and social objectives are less likely to be achieved. It seems that the basis of our crisis is again, one of communication - clients, planners, urban designers, and city dwellers - all are slightly out of phase, moving and operating on different planes. If this communication problem between these closely allied disciplines, both academically and in practice, is not resolved, then the problem of the cities is not likely to be resolved.

The French term for city planning is URBANISME. It is a term whose implications bear reflection. It has the connotation of a deeper understanding of the city, as the expression of a complex society and its history and cultural patterns, in addition to the disposition of the more physical elements. The urbanist, or urban designer, as we have here referred to him, would be concerned with the processes that determine

zation theory. An organization, in the sense in which the term is used in sociology, is defined as a social unit or human grouping 'deliberately constructed and reconstructed to seek specific goals'. This definition draws attention to the fact that the deliberate planning of organization is found less in some kinds of institution, such as families and groups of friends, than it is in institutions such as hospitals and banks. Indeed, most, but not all, of the empirical work in this field has been carried out in industrial enterprises, very often out of a desire to improve management techniques or to discover the conditions that are most conducive to the achievement of values, such as high productivity. Joan Woodward has shown how it has been necessary to call in question the validity of the more pragmatic and conventional rules of *management* theory and to move in the direction of developing a theory of *organization* which would 'determine the conditions under which behaviour inside organizations becomes standardized and predictable'. And the main pragmatic value of such a theory is to be able to establish systematically the kinds of organizational structure that are most appropriate for the achievement of particular purposes.

A good example of the studies of organizations done by sociologists is Burns and Stalker's work on *The Management of Innovation*. In this study they found it helpful to distinguish what they called, on the one hand, 'mechanistic' and, on the other, 'organic' types of organization.

Can such an approach be applied to the study of towns? Is it possible to analyse towns in such a way as to formulate the organizational conditions that might be conducive to particular kinds of social output? It is perhaps wise to reserve judgement about the extent to which organization theory could be applied *directly* to the study of urban areas. Industrial firms or offices, on the analysis of which organization theory has been built, differ from towns in two major respects. First of all their boundaries are much more clearly defined and, secondly, the purpose for which they were set up and the criteria that can be used to assess their success in achieving them appear to be much more precise than those which would apply to towns. Thus the direct application of organization theory is probably questionable. Nevertheless, it does suggest an analogy to follow and it seems likely that the methodological difficulties may be minimized in a study of the new towns. For the fact that they have been developed from scratch over the past 20 years may be expected to make their course of development easier to follow than that of older towns, while many of the new towns were specially concerned to foster certain kinds of social value.

One of the values that have been sought in the new towns has been what one writer has called 'a full and satisfying life in the community'. This has often been narrowed down to a rather repetitive concern with micro-scale phenomena such as 'neighbouring' and other kinds of personal interaction in streets or groups of dwellings, and this has probably helped to trivialize this whole matter. Its significance, however, derives from the broad social theory which gives it its justification—the theory of political pluralism.' This theory has taken second place, in our thinking about social structure, to the more dominant egalitarianism, on which so much public policy has been based these last 25 years. Political pluralism is concerned essentially with the relationship between the State and other kinds of social organization, and it draws attention to the limitations of State power in order to assert the importance in a democratic society of alternative and independent sources of power and foci of interest

The State is distinguished from other bodies by the fact that it is vested with special and over-riding powers of coercion with which to maintain law and order and public services. Far from dominating society, its role is to set the framework, the general context, within which, in non-political groups and associations of all kinds—from the family to the drama group and university, each with its own area of autonomy —the real life of society is carried on From the standpoint, for example, of the conventional local government officer or councillor, such groups and associations are frequently regarded as entirely private and sectional and as having nothing to contribute to the general welfare of the community. A pluralist view, on the other hand, begins by assuming the vigour of associational activity to be an index of democratic vitality, so that it follows that a good town is one in which people are encouraged to contribute to the ongoing life of the town.

Case Study of Harlow

Of all the new towns, Harlow seems to have been particularly successful in this direction. Thus, Harlow is the only new town to have set up its own resident string quartet: it is the first to have built its own sports centre and the first to bring together statutory authorities and voluntary organizations in a common effort to achieve something as substantial as that centre. Furthermore, the general sentiment that Harlow *is* a particularly lively town, socially, though by no means conclusive evidence, is sufficiently widespread not to be ignored.

For the inquiry which I wish to describe, at all events, I am starting with this general view that, in this respect, the social output of Harlow New Town has been exceptionally good; and the problem is how to explain it. In my opinion, the explanation has little to do with the physical characteristics of the town, though the significance of the suggestion will have to be considered, that the comparative absence of friction

the social and demographic character of various parts of the city; with geographical patterns of movement and relationships in the everyday lives of different kinds of people; with the ways in which people perceive their environment, and what in it is important to them - with the functions of different types of urban institutions, as well as the configurational framework which accommodates (or fails to accommodate) them. The 'urbanist' in the European sense of the word, represents a synthesis of today's planner and urban designer, as we know them in North America.

It seems that most of the things that society produces, whether these be automobiles, roadways, buildings or even lonely parks, were created in good faith, each effort honestly motivated, but yet each completed by people acting independently of one another. This would lead us to believe that the visual chaos of our urban scene has been, in fact, the inevitable by-product of an intellectual isolation that has developed between the many and increasingly specialized components of the peculiarly American democratic economy. Their creators were ignorant of the total needs of the community, or if they were not ignorant, they were most certainly indifferent to their responsibility. In the past, the Church, the King, the Nobles, and the wealthy Patrons made the environmental decisions for their communities. We are content that these agents no longer exist, for the most part, but this does not remove the fact that some body must accept this responsibility. To date, it has been assumed only on an extremely limited scale. We are indeed proud to be living in a democracy, but if these responsibilities are not met, then we cannot truly be free men. If we are to eliminate the physically dangerous, psychologically harassing, and esthetically offensive elements from our urban environment, community and governmental responsibility on an unprecedented nation wide scale will have to occur. This can only be possible by the reintegration of the disciplines of city planning, urban design, and arthitecture within a framework of overall imaginative environmental planning, aided by progressive legislative machinery, and always being certain that this planning is carried on in terms of the total need.

The very prominent town planner, Hans Blumenfeld has aptly summed up the peculiar nature of an urban crisis:

> "The American and Canadian people are faced with a dilemma. They want, and want badly, two things. They want to live in an efficient, convenient, healthy, and pleasant environment, and they want, as individuals and collectively as municipalities, to be able to make an honest dollar out of every piece of property they happen to own. The two are basically incompatible. Sooner or later they will have to decide which one is more important to them."

1. Burchard, John Ely, *Man and The Modern City*, Green, Lowe, Walker, University of Pittsburgh Press, 1963, p. 15, 16.

2. Gutheim, Frederick, "Urban Space and Urban Design", *Cities and Space, the future use of urban land;* Lowdon Wingo Jr., John Hopkins Press, 1963, p. 127

3. Blummenfeld, Hans, "The Urban Patters", *The Modern Metropolis*, MIT Press, 1967, p. 60

social issues

M. BROADY

between the new town and the existing village of Harlow, as compared with Stevenage, for instance, was due to the smallness of the older community. Much more important are, first of all, the factors that resulted in people coming into Harlow with something positive to contribute to its social development and second, the characteristics of the administrative, political and social organization of the town which made this potential effective in the development of the town.

Very roughly, the lines along which this exploratory stage of the investigation have been conducted are as follows. As for the first set of factors, it is now well established that the incidence of social initiative and community lead-

ership is proportionately higher among white-collar than among manual workers. Therefore, hypothetically, the high level of social vitality which has been noted in Harlow might well be associated with a high proportion of white-collar employment than in other new towns, and thus with the town's industrial selection policy. Here, two sets of data are immediately available. Dunning's study of *manufacturing* industry in the new towns, in 1957-58, showed that Harlow had twice the average percentage of miscellaneous industries (38.8 as against 18.5 per cent), though the implications of this for the social structure are not at present clear. On the other hand, the 1961 census showed that 32.4 per cent of the labour force in Harlow was in, broadly, white-collar employment (socio-economic groups 1-6) and that this was roughly the same as in Basildon and Hemel Hempstead. though rather lower than in Stevenage and Crawley. It does not look, therefore, as if *prima facie* the hypothesis will hold; and even if there were a greater percentage difference, it would be difficult to relate this directly to a greater incidence of social vitality unless it could also be shown, for example, that Harlow's housing policy has resulted in a higher proportion of this stratum actually living in the town than was the case elsewhere.

However, among the social activists in the town, the teachers are said to have played a particularly important role and this seems to be confirmed by the data which have been collected. If it were also the case that the teachers in Harlow were of a particularly high calibre, this might be explained by the fact that Essex was operating a bilateral educational policy at a time when this was still rather *avant garde* and experimental, which itself could have attracted to the town a rather-go-ahead kind of teacher. It has also been suggested that the promotion prospects for younger teachers were better in a rapidly-growing new town than in older areas, and the schools themselves newer and pleasanter to work in. But this combination of factors would apply to Basildon; and if the role of teachers in Harlow were found to be significantly different from Basildon, then it would be necessary to inquire into the criteria that were applied for the selection of teachers by the different educational divisions. Thus, the kind of factors that might have to be considered as factors predisposing to a high level of social vitality in Harlow include public policies relating to industrial selection, housing allocation and the selection of teachers; factors which were not specifically intended to have effects on the social development of the town.

The 'potential', which is given in the people who come into a new town, engages effectively in the life of a town only when it finds an organized expression. The chief agency through which this expression is effected is the voluntary association, set up to promote, let us say, football or drama. But the contribution that such an association makes is related to the degree of support which it receives in the community. This is not simply a question of numbers; it is also a question of the place that it wins for itself in the social structure of the community.

Especially in a new town, where other sources of patronage and support tend to be absent, social development is particularly likely to be affected by the attitudes of the statutory authorities. In many towns the relationship between the civic administration and the voluntary associations is very tenuous, not to say unhelpful. But in Harlow there appeears to have developed a singularly sensitive rapport between these two sides of the town's organization, in which, simply expressed, the public power, financial interest and patronage of the statutory authorities, armed with a mandate for the general welfare of the town, has been joined with the vigour and active interest in particular activities of the voluntary bodies, to ghe greater benefit of the town as a whole.

The sociological question that is raised, if this general thesis is validated, is what precise institutional arrangements have made it possible. At this stage only a few possible lines of argument can be indicated. The first point is that a particularly significant role seems to have been played by the Moot House community association. which was effectively the first forum and seed-bed of ideas, and the place in which the indigenous leadership of the new Harlow first began to flex its muscles. Second, it is clear that the staff of the Development Corporation, far from regarding building a new town as merely another job, themselves lived in and took a very active part in the social development of Harlow. Indeed, there seems to have developed—through men like Eric Adams in the general manager's office, Sewell Harris in Moot House, and Len Whyte in the Corporation's liaison office—a pattern of assumptions about the way a statutory body should relate itself to the indigenous development of a town, which engendered between the two an unusually high level of mutual confidence. These attitudes also appear to have characterized the local Labour Party which brought to its period of office from 1955 something of that William Morris type of socialism which held it desirable that a Scoialist society should be a cultured society.

This inquiry—as will be evident from this necessarily provisional account—is only yet in its initial stages. Some 80 detailed sets of interview notes presently await analysis. If this work is successful, I hope that it will have two main effects. The first of these, of course, would be to contribute to our understanding of how a new community develops, not in terms of the interaction at the neighbourhood level but of the organizational characteristics of the town as a whole. Ideally, it would be desirable to make further comparative studies of other new towns in order to develop a wider theory of the relationship between social organizational differences in social 'output' in new towns.

PLAN for LEISURE

As a profession, I believe that we have long been lax about taking the necessary leadership to make our services more relevant to the business and industrial community. Similarly, I feel that the commercial and industrial sectors have been inexcusably slow in recognizing their responsibilities in encouraging and providing for a quality living environment which we ordinarily associate with parks and recreation.

If we were to take a look into the background of our professional calling, we would find some early cause-and-effect relationships between parks and industry. The most obvious being that the concept of local public parks was hastened during the last century to provide a measure of relief from the fouled living conditions created by industrial development in cities and towns, while at the provincial and federal levels, parks were often created to protect parts of the natural resource base from further exploitation by timber and extraction interests.

Public outcry led to our first parks

The earliest local parks, public places for recreation, were developed to compensate for the crowded urban living conditions of the industrial era. These micro compensatory environments were established only after a level of public tolerance of those conditions was exceeded and when public officials with intuitive political sensitivity knew when to open a new playground or park. While much of this kind of planning still exists today, there is now a well-established corps of professional urban planners who believe that a quality environment for living is imperative to the condition of human life. It was the establishment of this professional element of public service, the urban planner, that has been largely responsible for placing public parks within the scale of alternatives of land use and social service. Up to the time when the urban planner entered the scene of public service, parks and recreation were largely considered a frill with a generally inarticulate professional group doing a rather haphazard job of identifying the significance of its work.

But even with these comparatively recent gains in public acceptance of our professional objectives, I think we have to realize that the competition for the use of resources between the pubic and private sectors at the community level is still too one-sided in favor of industry and commercial development. There is just very little that can be said in comparing the kind of leadership and influence that industry can bring to bear upon local officials, if a decision about alternative uses of resources in their favor is required. I do not mean to imply that we do not have the machinery — legal, that is — to make this a more equitable competition, but how many zoning boards have you known who have been able to withstand a full-scale attack on the city's land-use master plan? The situation is simply this: given a chance for economic gain or aesthetic gain, despite the new acceptance of parks and recreation as a governmental function, local governments invariably choose the economic gains.

I am suggesting that if we recognize the power of industry and accept it for what it represents, then the professional leadership of the public sector is best utilized by attempting to instill a conscience for the environment in the leaders of industry, preferably based on how industry benefits from a quality environment, and not to spend as much time attempting to educate the public, which, to begin with, is a proven loser in this competition.

'Game' against litter is already lost

Industry's indifference to the living environment is most offensive in its contribution to environmental pollution. One case in point of the lack of com-

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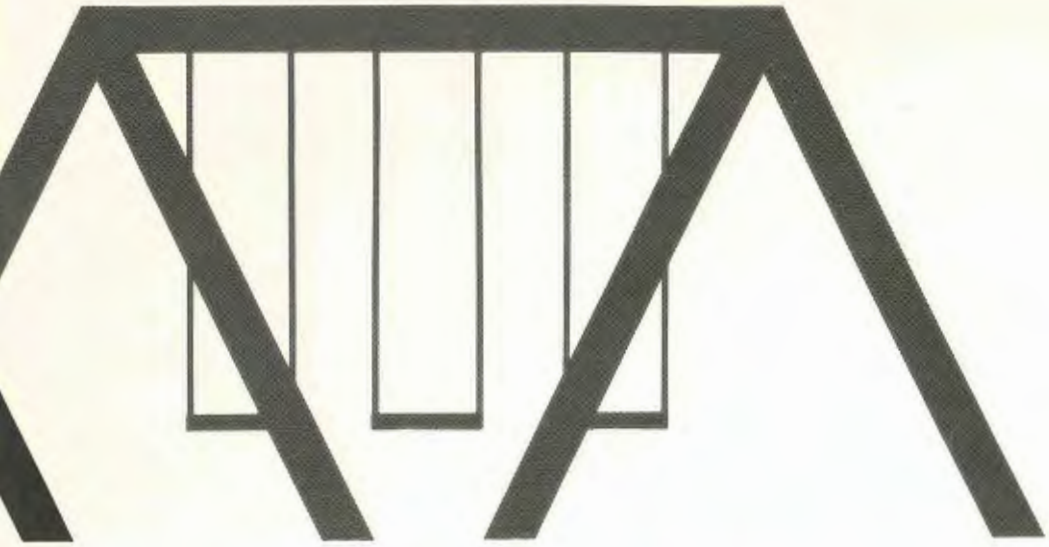


RÉCRÉATION

Louis F. Twardzik
Michigan State University *

Il est admis depuis longtemps que le secteur public ne peut pas satisfaire seul aux besoins de loisirs. Cette situation a été officiellement reconnue aux Etats-Unis, il y a plus de 10 ans, par la Commission nationale d'étude des ressources de loisirs de plein air. Bien que la Commission nationale d'étude des ressources de loisirs de plein air ait inspiré de nombreuses inovations importantes dans les loisirs publics, on peut dire en toute certitude que rien de significatif n'a suivi ses recommandations sur l'encouragement du secteur privé à élaborer des sources de loisirs.

Les agences locales de parcs et loisirs peuvent à ce point de vue étendre leurs fonctions d'une façon bien particulière en assumant un rôle directeur dans la coordination de tous les efforts de la collectivité en matière de loisirs. Au départ, il nous faut étudier l'ensemble des besoins en loisirs de la collectivité. Cela comprend une gamme complète d'activités commerciales de loisirs couvertes par des organismes privés et quasi-privés. S'il existe un besoin apparent d'entreprises commerciales supplémentaires de loisirs ou d'agrandissement d'une Association de jeunes chrétiens (Y.M.C.A.) ou de troupes d'éclaireurs, prenez l'initiative et attirez l'attention des investisseurs publics et privés sur ces besoins. Il ne faut considérer, cette activité comme étant un effort bénévole du responsable des parcs et loisirs en sa qualité de membre du conseil du Y, mais comme faisant effectivement partie de ses fonctions officielles. Il faut que le responsable, le conseil et le personnel des parcs et loisirs s'emploient à développer les secteurs privés et commerciaux des loisirs avec une ardeur et un enthousiasme identiques à ceux qu'ils déploient pour gagner le soutien public dans l'acquisition de terrains supplémentaires de parcs.

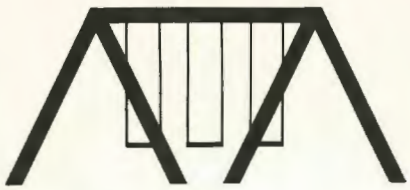
Il faut supposer que l'un des nouveaux avantages d'une telle orientation est d'assurer l'aménagement de loisirs et de services privés d'une meilleure qualité pour la collectivité.

Il faut naturellement qu'une nouvelle planification précède cette nouvelle sollicitude à l'égard des loisirs publics. Essayez d'imaginer un plan d'ensemble des parcs et loisirs de la collectivité dépassant le système simpliste actuel d'espaces verts, de centres communautaires et de terrains de jeux et englobant un schéma de grande envergure qui comprenne l'aménagement commercial des loisirs et des programmes privés de loisirs. Une fois que nous commencerons à établir des plans de loisirs pour la collectivité au lieu de rester cantonnés dans les secteurs traditionnels de nos attributions, nous serons alors en passe de fournir un service public vraiment adapté à notre clientèle.

Un milieu intéressant pour l'industrie

Je suis convaincu que la nature des loisirs en tant qu'émotion et besoin humains est trop importante pour rester limitée à la simple notion de temps. Je ne reconnais pas le temps comme borne aux loisirs en tant qu'expérience humaine. Par conséquent, comme les loisirs ne peuvent pas et ne seront pas limités à ce qui est offert par le secteur public, l'expression humaine des loisirs ne peut être restreinte à des **types** de distractions de travaux ou de détente. Les loisirs peuvent se dérouler en tout lieu, à tout moment et en toutes circonstances.

Traditionnellement, nous avons choisi à la place le concept superficiel de loisirs qui est synonyme de détente. Cela n'est évidemment plus qu'une conception démodée de cette activité ou aspiration humaine. Je prétends que cette interprétation de notre domaine professionnel a largement contribué à la détérioration actuelle du milieu urbain parce que le lieu de travail n'est nullement entré en ligne de compte dans nos projets de création et de maintien d'un milieu de qualité. En d'autres termes, on



LEISURE

petition between public policy and industrial benefits are the programs of litter prevention. Excessive litter has become so obnoxious from every possible point of view, from aesthetics to health, that this is one contest wherein the public should emerge the victor, if it is to win any of these confrontations. Instead, the ultimate in losing has taken place: the public sector still thinks it is winning, while in reality the game is already finished in favor of the opposition.

Industry has wisely put some of its best people to work on the problem of making environmental pollution publicly acceptable, and they have quickly identified the weak points of the opposing forces by making in-puts of money and providing personal publicity. As a result, we now have, through industrial backing, a wide range of anti-litter organizations which publish a wide range of newsletters, hold annual meetings, have anti-litter days once a year wherein public officials are duly photographed doing something insipid about trash. These anti-litter groups are largely directed and financed by industry and their representatives. These industrial strategies are based on simplistic and visible responses to a complex social issue, and as long as they can keep it at this level, there is less apt to be a serious public approach to how litter can be controlled. 'Serious approaches' means identifying who the suppliers of litter are, and how can indiscriminate uses of industrial products resulting in litter be controlled. Industry has been able to attract some of the most prestigious people and organizations into these low level programs of litter prevention, and from every indication they have this thing wrapped up.

Obviously, the private sector is the winner at this stage. But there is another way to approach this problem and that is to bypass the process of "educating the public", because industry has built its greatest strength in this traditional process, and instead, directly approach the industries with suggestions on how they might benefit more by actively accepting the enhancement of the environment as a matter of long-range profitability, just as they have with the health and saftey of their employees. In this instance, however, it will not be as easy a task. Strict regulations by government on standards for safe working conditions were obviously a prerequisite to industry's understanding that a healthy worker is more productive, and also, a more active consumer.

Our professionals have failed

How did we arrive at this condition, in this day, in this age? Do we blame public officials and those housewives with unfilled leisure for falling prey to industry's strategies? I do not think so. The park and recreation professionals are the only self-professed group who address themselves completely to aesthetics, recreation and the environment; it is this group that has fallen down in their responsibilities in providing the necessary leadership to keep the public's needs foremost. I am also suggesting that it is this group that should be preparing alternatives for industry on how to "eat and keep their cake".

I do not think it is asking too much to have the park and recreation profession change its views on public recreation space after its first 100 years. One gets feeling grateful that our first planned public recreation space was not a cave instead of a central park in New York, because of the likelihood that we would have become experts only in developing underground recreation areas and systems, with the largest and unique, naturally, being the responsibility of the higher levels of government. Who knows how long it would have taken us as a profession, at our present rate, to come out of the caves and address ourselves to the surface environment.

Similarly, it's time for us now to get out of these isolated, artificial islands of greenery we call 'parks', and to address ourselves to the total living environment of the community. These are complex times during which many of us have been hiding in our own public preserves, isolated from the harsh reality of the needs of people with vastly changed social structures and values that have been accumulating during the past century since Central Park.

One of the requirements for park and recreation professionals to become relevant to this age, indeed, to survive, is to accept responsibility for the quality of the living environment for the entire community — to go as far as the public wants us to go in developing and maintaining its environment. The extent that this approach can take will be determined only after it has been tried. The important point now is to get out of our present demure position of merely maintaining public greenery, and extend ourselves to the public instead of hiding from its problems. Then, and only then, will we be in the proper posture to treat industry as a part of our public, instead of as antagonist and competitor.

It has long been recognized that the public sector alone cannot possibly meet the demands for recreation. This was formally recognized more than ten years ago in the U.S.A. by the national Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission, and while many great innovations in public recreation have their genesis in ORRRC, it can safely be said that nothing of consequence has followed their recommendations about encouraging the private sector as a supplier of recreation.

One specific way that local park and recreation agencies can expand their roles in this regard is to assume a leadership role for co-ordination of all recreation efforts in the community. As a beginning point, we should be studying the total recreation

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n'attendait pas du travail qu'il provoque les émotions agréables que l'on associe aux loisirs. Le lieu de travail était par conséquent censé n'être qu'un cadre utilitaire et sans attrait.

L'industrie a démontré elle-même que ces concepts du travail et du lieu de travail sont devenus inadmissibles. Un nombre toujours plus grand de parcs industriels rivalisent avec succès dans leurs agréments avec certains parcs publics alors qu'une part de plus en plus importante du travail monotone et ennuyeux est laissée à la cybernétique.

Par conséquent, dans notre rôle d'assistance à l'industrie, nous pourrions inclure un programme d'encouragement aux compagnies industrielles anciennes pour qu'elles donnent un aspect plus attrayant aux lieux de travail. Cela pourrait comprendre des conseils sur l'aménagement des établissements. Chaque collectivité dispose de ses propres normes concernant ce qu'une agence publique peut fournir gratuitement aux intérêts privés. A mon avis il faut **au moins** utiliser les talents professionnels du personnel des parcs et loisirs pour encourager les entreprises industrielles à améliorer leurs établissements. Ici, l'espoir réside dans le fait qu'une fois qu'ils remarqueront une zone bien entretenue et correctement décorée, et il est important pour les hommes d'affaires qu'ils voient effectivement la différence entre une zone industrielle délabrée et une zone bien entretenue et correctement décorée, ils **verront** que cela vaut les frais d'utilisation des talents professionnels nécessaires pour continuer l'entretien des lieux.

Nous n'avons pas maintenant le temps d'entrer dans tous les détails de ce genre d'opération, mais la pose de gazon là où il n'y avait que des parterres en friche, l'implantation d'un bassin, d'une fontaine ou de massifs de fleurs, la plantation d'arbres, l'installation de statues et peut-être de terrains de jeux de galets et de tables de piquenique là où il n'y avait auparavant que des terrains négligés devraient produire une impression favorable à la fois sur la direction et sur le personnel. On doit par conséquent supposer que quelle que soit la contribution fournie à une entreprise industrielle par le Service des parcs et loisirs pour ce genre de transformation, elle sera compensée par une manière de voir différente chez les autres et au total par une évolution importante pour la collectivité.

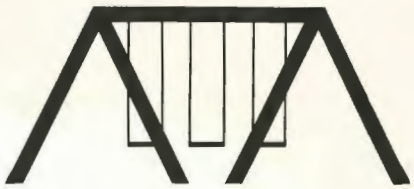
Les avantages économiques potentiels pouvant résulter de l'esprit novateur d'un tel service public à l'usage de l'industrie sont également importants pour la collectivité. Le planificateur et, d'une manière générale l'administrateur industriel, ont reconnu depuis longtemps l'importance de l'esprit de tolérance de la collectivité envers l'entreprise industrielle, qu'elle soit nouvelle ou ancienne. Cet esprit peut se manifester nettement par le désir du Service des parcs et loisirs d'accueillir des entreprises nouvelles et de les encourager à s'implanter dans une zone industrielle qui soit autre chose qu'un endroit réservé à l'industrie avec des services et des moyens de transport appropriés alors qu'en fait, elles pourraient contribuer à l'esthétique générale du milieu.

Examen des méthodes de collaboration avec le secteur privé

Deux des catégories principales composant le secteur privé sont les entreprises commerciales et les organismes bénévoles. Afin de présenter des propositions concernant l'établissement d'une collaboration avec chacune ou avec les deux concernant l'expansion, il faut connaître leurs caractéristiques principales.

Le secteur commercial se distingue essentiellement par son orientation vers le profit, alors que les organismes bénévoles, quoiqu'ils soient inspirés par le désir de servir, ne sont pas tous ouverts au public. Cela pourra surprendre certains, mais il peut être plus facile d'établir des relations avec le groupe commercial parce que ses représentants sont orientés vers l'objectif qui a été indiqué ci-dessus, à savoir le profit. Les intentions des organismes bénévoles ne sont cependant pas très claires, parce que les motifs de leurs représentants peuvent varier considérablement. Les volontaires qui servent ces organismes ne sont pas inspirés par des mobiles aussi facilement repérables. Il y en a qui sont uniquement altruistes et simplement animés du désir de servir leurs semblables. Pour d'autres, il s'agit d'une distraction au même titre que le golf pour certains. Il y a aussi, et cela est généralement valable pour les personnalités des organismes bénévoles, ceux qui ne sont là que pour les avantages de publicité qu'ils en retireront. Il y en a, naturellement, qui sont placés à ce même niveau de volontariat par le commerce et l'industrie et qui visent un but identique.

L'établissement de relations avec le groupe à buts lucratifs n'est possible que si la demande d'activité récréative est suffisamment elevée et si les relations avec l'agence publique permettent d'assurer un bénéfice raisonnable sur le placement de l'actionnaire et une production de qualité pour le public à un coût raisonnable. Par exemple, la viabilité économique pour un groupe à buts lucratifs, investissant l'argent nécessaire à toutes les installations d'une piscine et l'exploitant moyennant des droits d'entrée analogues à ceux réclamés par un organisme des parcs et loisirs, n'est possible, dans certaines collectivités, que si l'engagement contractuel est suffisamment long et si les installations sont construites sur terrain public, ce qui amène une importante économie de capital, et si les lieux sont aménagés et entretenus par



needs of the community. This includes a full range of commercial recreation activities in the private and quasi-private organizations. If there is an apparent need for additional commercial recreation enterprises or expansion of a Y.M.C.A. or Boy Scout troop, take the leadership in bringing these needs to the attention of the public and private investors. This concern should not be construed as being the off-duty efforts of the park and recreation executive as a member of the board of the Y, but most important, as part of his official role. The park and recreation executive and staff and board should be working at expanding the commercial and private recreation sectors with the same vigor and enthusiasm as they do in gaining public support for the acquisition of additional park lands.

One has to assume that one of the new benefits of such leadership is to assure higher quality private recreation developments and services for the community.

Of course, this new kind of concern for the public's recreation has to be preceded by a new type of planning. Envision, if you will, a community park and recreation master plan that extends beyond our present simplistic system of green spaces and community centers and playground programs to a truly comprehensive plan that includes commercial recreation developments and private recreation programs. Once we begin to plan for the recreation of the people of the community, instead of for our traditional areas of competency, then we are well on the way to providing a public service truly relevant to our clientele.

An environment attractive to industry

It is my conviction that the nature of recreation as a human response and need is too large to be limited by the term leisure as a use of time. I do not recognize time as a delimitation of recreation as a human experience. Therefore, just as recreation cannot, and will not, be limited to what is provided by the public sector, neither can the human experience of recreation be limited to kinds of leisure or work or repose. The recreation experience can take place at any time, at any place, under any circumstances.

Traditionally, we have chosen instead the superficial concept of recreation which is synonymous with leisure. This obviously is no longer a valid conceptualization of this human aspiration or activity. I maintain that this interpretation of our professional field has contributed greatly to our present deteriorating urban environment because the place of work had no place in our scheme of creating and maintaining a quality environment. That is, work was not expected to provide any of these pleasurable responses associated with recreation, and a place of work was, therefore, expected to exist in an unattractive, utilitarian setting.

That these concepts of work and places of work are no longer acceptable, has been proven by industry itself. More and more of the new industrial parks successfully compete with some public parks in their appeal, while more of the deadly monotonous work is now a matter for cybernetics.

Our role, therefore, assisting industry, might well include a program of encouraging older industrial companies to make their places of work more attractive. This might include advice on how to develop their grounds. Each community has its own standards of how much free of anything a public agency can provide private interests. My point is to use at least the professional talents of the park and recreation staff to encourage the industrial concerns to upgrade their areas. The hope here is that once they see the difference — and it is important to many businessmen that they do see the difference between a shabby industrial area and one that is well landscaped and maintained — they will see that it is well worth the expense to employ the needed professional talent to continue to maintain this condition.

Now we don't have the time to detail all of the forms that this might take, but the laying of turf where there were only dirty building grounds, or the creation of a pond, a fountain or masses of flowers, shade trees, even statuary, possibly shuffleboard courts and picnic tables — any or all of these things introduced where there were formerly unkempt grounds, should leave a favorable impression with management and employees alike. One, therefore, has to assume that whatever contribution the park and recreation department makes in bringing this kind of change to one industrial development will be compensated by what might follow in the change it might bring about in others and in total, a significant change in the community.

Also important to the community, are the potential economic benefits that may result from such innovative public service to industry. The industrial planner, and industrial management in general, have long recognized the importance of a community's "spirit of acceptance" of industry, new and old. This spirit can be clearly manifested by the will-

ingness of the park and recreation department to welcome new industry and encourage them to develop an industrial area that is more than an area zoned for industry with adequate transportation and utilities, that indeed, it could contribute to the overall aesthetic environment.

Exploring methods of co-operation with the private sector

Two of the main categories that make up the private sector are the commercial and voluntary agencies. In order to advance proposals about establishing co-operative developmental relationships with each, or either, their primary characteristics should be noted.

The commercial sector is identified chiefly by its profit motives, while the voluntary agencies, although they are known for service, are not all open to the public. Surprisingly to some, it might be found easier to establish relationships with the commercial group because its agents are committed to the purpose which is precisely as stated — profit. The purpose of volunteers, however, is not quite clear because the motives of its agents may differ widely. The volunteers who serve do not bring as easily identifiable motives to the organization. Some are purely altruistic with a desire to simply serve their fellow man, while other are recreational in the very same sense that golf is to others. There are also those — and this is generally reserved for the hierarchy of the volunteer agency — who are there purely for the benefits of conspicuous social servitude. Of course, there are some who are planted at this same level of volunteer service by business and industry for the same purpose.

Establishing a relationship with the profit-seeking group is possible only if the demand for a recreation activity is sufficiently high, and if the relationship with the public agency is such to assure reasonable profit on the investment for the investor and a quality we experience for the public at acceptable costs. For instance, the economic feasibility of a profit group investing the necessary money to install a complete swimming pool facility and operate it from fees similar to what the park and recreation agency whould charge, is possible in some communities only if the contractual arrangement is long enough, the facilities are built on public land, and thereby saving a large capital investment for the investors, and if the grounds are landscaped and maintained by the public agency, hopefully , with existing maintenance personnel of the park and recreation agency. The disadvantage of this arrangement, of course, is that the park and recreation executive will have to spend a considerable amount of time in exploring the many new details for such an arrangement. The benefits, on the other hand, could be that the public would not have to spend the $200,000 one associates with public swimming pool construction today, and instead might very well invest that kind of money in developing additional playgrounds.

Of course, this example would be a preposterous suggestion in some communities, but in others it might very well be appropriate. The important point for the park and recreation executive is to be willing to explore the possibilities of these kinds of developmental relationships with the private sector.

The same holds true for the potential of volunteer agencies establishing recreational facilities. Many of these agencies are able to obtain public donations and support because of the recreation opportunities they make available to the public. This being the case, why not take the initiative and invite such agencies into the community and encourage others to expand their offerings. Explore ways of letting them develop their community centers on public land. It is traditional for recreation directors to work closely with those same agencies in programming . . .why not in developing?

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l'organisme public, si possible avec le personnel d'entretien en place dans l'organisme des parcs et loisirs. Naturellement, l'inconvénient de ce système est que le responsable des parcs et loisirs devra passer un temps considérable à examiner les nombreux détails nouveaux d'un tel système. Parmi les avantages, le public n'aurait pas à dépenser les $200,000. allant de pair, de nos jours, avec la construction d'une piscine publique. Cet argent pourrait être investi dans l'aménagement de lieux de loisirs supplémentaires.

Cet exemple n'est naturellement qu'une idée absurde pour certaines collectivités mais il peut très bien être valable pour d'autres. L'important pour le responsable des parcs et loisirs est son désir d'étudier les possibilités de ce genre de relations avec le secteur privé.

Cela vaut également pour la masse des organismes bénévoles mettant sur pied des installations de loisirs. Un grand nombre de ces organismes peuvent obtenir le soutien et les dons du public grâce aux facilités de loisirs qu'ils mettent à sa disposition. Pourquoi, alors, ne pas prendre l'initiative et inviter de tels organismes dans la collectivité? et encourager les autres à développer leurs offres? Examinez les possibilités de leur permettre l'implantation de leurs centres collectifs sur un terrain public. Il est de tradition, pour les directeurs de loisirs, de travailler étroitement avec ces mêmes organismes dans le domaine de la programmation. . . pourquoi pas dans celui de l'aménagement?

Coastal Cities of Australia

by C. N. FORWARD
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Russian Cities of the Future

by NATALIA AVGUSTINOVITCH
Translation: S. Rosenberg

EXTENSIVE waterfront park land is a remarkable feature of major Australian coastal cities that greatly enhances the urban setting. A visitor from Canada cannot fail to observe the obvious contrast between Canadian and Australian coastal cities in this respect.

All of Australia's largest cities are situated on coasts, including the six state capitals. In population, Sydney and Melbourne are the size of Montreal and Toronto; Brisbane and Adelaide are somewhat larger than Winnipeg and Ottawa, but a little smaller than Vancouver; Perth is about the size of Hamilton and Hobart is a bit larger than Saint John. These cities are the key administrative, industrial, commercial and trading centres of the nation. The port function plays a vital role in their economic activities. Yet they manage to devote half of their waterfront land to park and recreational uses. How this pattern of use evolved and how it is being retained in the face of rapid urban expansion is worthy of investigation.

Surveys of waterfront land use in a number of Australian and Canadian port cities conducted by the author during the past four years provide evidence of the contrast in provision of coastal parks (Table I). The Australian cities listed have, on the average, five times as much waterfront park within metropolitan areas as the Canadian ones. Within the Australian group three of the cities, Melbourne, Adelaide and Perth, have well over half of their coastlines in park use. Much of this park land is in the form of relatively narrow strips fringing the shore, often lying between is not its width, but the fact that public access to the shoreline and unobstructed view of the water body from the bordering road or highway is assured.

TABLE I

COASTAL PARK LAND IN SELECTED AUSTRALIAN AND CANADIAN METROPOLITAN AREAS

	Linear Mileage of Waterfront Land	Percentage in Park Use		Linear Mileage of Waterfront Land	Percentage in Park Use
Australia			**Canada**		
Brisbane	101	35	St. John's	5	9
Sydney	281	36	Halifax	69	4
Hobart	67	31	Saint John	53	3
Melbourne	95	64	Vancouver	331	11
Adelaide	40	55	Victoria	134	16
Perth	108	59	Average:		9
Average:		47			

The pattern of extensive waterfront park in some cities may be traced back to colonial times. In Adelaide, South Australia, the first Surveyor-General, Colonel William Light, received instructions from the Colonization Commissioners to reserve as a public road all land on the coast within 100 feet of high water mark and a road at least 66 feet wide along every lake or other sheet of water. He dutifully followed this policy in the Adelaide district in 1837 when the plan of the new capital was laid out.

Similar foreshore reserves were declared during the 19th century in the Melbourne area where strips averaged two chains (132 feet) in width above high water. The other colonial capitals did not apply a reserve policy so universal in character, but acquisition of waterfront lands for parks was pursued actively. In Perth, for example, certain foreshore reserves were

Projects of what the city of the future will look like have in recent years been produced by architects all over the world. The rapid increase of the urban population throughout the world presents, too, the problem of overcrowding. Apart from the lay-outs of new residential areas and groups of buildings, architects today give thought to the planning of new cities on entirely novel population dispersal principles.

There are teams of Soviet arthitects working at the Institute of the History, Theory and Prospective Problems of Soviet Architecture and the City Planning Research Centre who are engaged in the study of problems relating to planning the future city. Of special interest are the efforts of the New Element of Population Dispersal team. Designs by this team are on view at EXPO-70 in Osaka.

The team came into being in 1960. It was organized by a group of graduating students who presented a diploma work entitled "The City of the Future" at the Moscow College of Architecture. Later the team was joined by new graduates of the same college, Alexei Gutnov and Ilya Lezhava, its original leaders, heading the team to this day. The team's first important theoretical effort, from which it has derived its name was "The New Element of Population Dispersal." Designs by this team were displayed at a number of architectural exhibitions and at the XIV Architectural Triennial in Italy. Its architects published a book on the communist city of the future which was translated into Italian. And this year's January issue of a leading French arthitectural periodical carried an article, "Four principles of Future Architecture", by A. Gutnov and I. Lezhava.

In a country like the Societ Union where there is planned economy and planned industry architectural designs of future cities are realistic guides for planning the towns of tomorrow.

A map is a patchwork of dots and lines, the dots standing for cities, the lines for highways—the two traditional forms of architectural distribution. To architects they are the clue for achieving a well-proportioned combination of two forms of population dispersal.

The highway, according to the architect, is the backbone of present day population dispersal. It is a powerful connecting channel taking in roads of high-speed passenger and freight traffic, pipelines and various means of communication. A zone of from two to four kilometres on both sides of the highway is a population dispersal hub with complexes of research and municipal centres, designing offices and factories. It is a system of buildings which stretches for dozens of kilometres. Within the hub are concentrated the industries and to it are attracted human and material resources.

After making a study of the history of architecture, city planning and the latest sociological research the architects of the team have arrived at the conclusion that the human dwelling is a more conservative structure than the factory or research centre. Hence it is

Australia

set aside under the lands acts of 1872 and in the Sydney area local governments purchased considerable land along the shore for park purposes around the turn of the century.

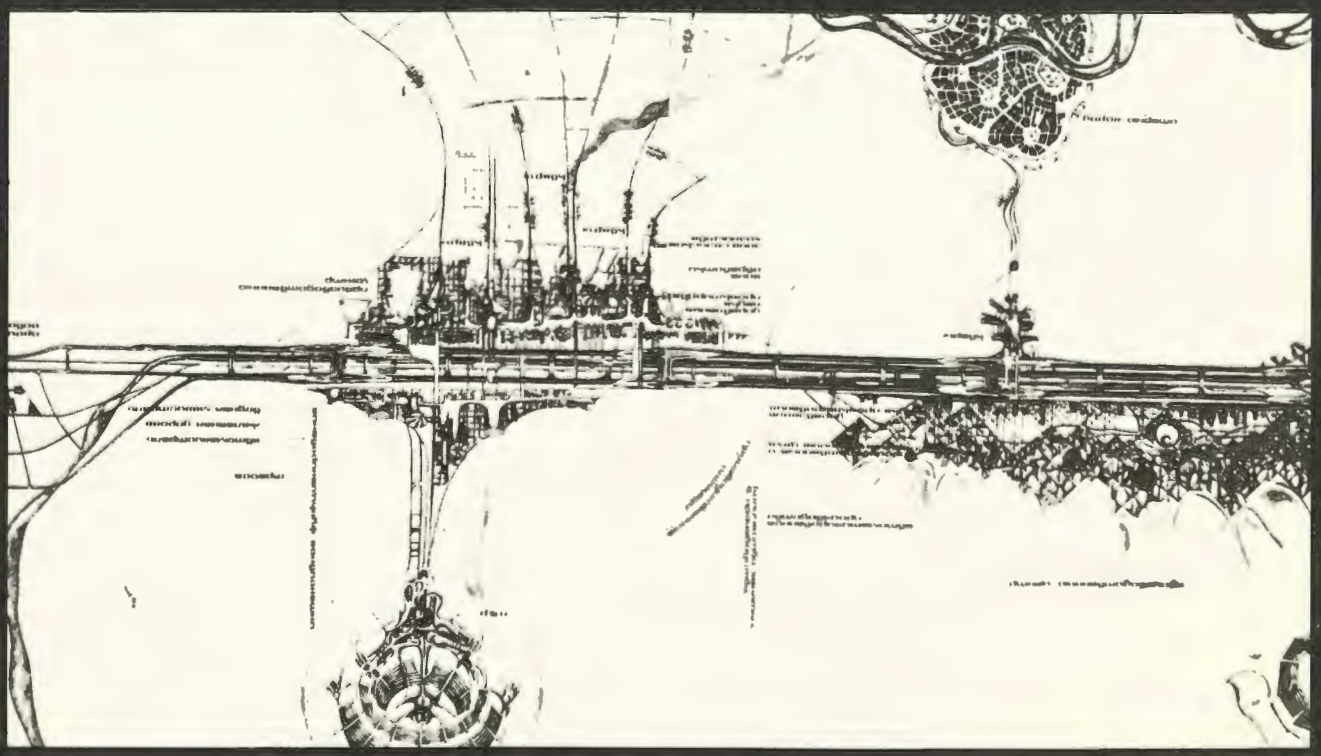
It is evident that Australians have long been amenable to the expenditure of public funds on waterfront park land and accept as normal the existence of public domain along a substantial portion of the urban shoreline. In the cities of universal reserves some of the waterfront land was made available for high priority uses, such as port facilities, industrial sites, public utilities and defence bases, but very little was alienated to residential use. Consequently, historic land policies largely account for the remarkably high proportion of waterfront park land in a few of the cities.

Recent planning legislation has greatly reinforced and expanded the historic pattern of reserves in Australian metropolitan areas. A large part of the Sydney Harbour shoreline is included in the Foreshore Scenic Protection Area established in 1951 by the Cumberland County Council. Within this area major aims of the Council were to acquire additional foreshore land for parks, exercise strict control of waterfront development and preserve shoreline scenery. A few years later a Foreshore Building Code was enacted to further these aims.

In Perth the Metropolitan Region Scheme of 1955 was the planning vehicle under which substantial additions were made to the existing inventory of coastal park land. By 1968 over 70 per cent of the shores of the Swan and Canning rivers that flow through the metropolitan area were under public ownership, as well as a large portion of the Indian Ocean coastline. At present land developers are required to set aside as reserve a waterfront strip two and one-half chains wide (165 feet) if it is not already public property.

The Tasmania Local Government Act of 1962 au-

RUSSIA



thorized the planners in Hobart to request from subdividers a 100-foot strip of land above high water level in reasonably flat terrain and an even wider strip on steep sites. Ownership of these park strips is vested in the state and no compensation is paid to the developers.

The modern planning policy on waterfront reserves in Adelaide was initiated under the Town Planning and Development Act of 1920 and culminated in the 1967 Act relating to the planning and development of land within the state. Not only is there provision for a reserve 100 feet wide along any shoreline deemed suitable, but also, there must be a public roadway between this reserve and the front entrances of subdivided properties.

> "Subject to this section, any plan of subdivision of any land which has a frontage on the sea coast, or any lake side, or bank of a river, or open aqueduct, or any bank of a creek which is shown on an authorized development plan as suitable or desirable for preservation or protection, shall make provision for a reserve at least one hundred feet in width along such frontage and the rear of any allotment depicted on the plan shall not abut such reserve."*

This legislation on waterfront reserves must be among the most progressive in the world!

While Australian coastal cities adorn themselves with extensive shoreline reserves, Canadian cities pay little heed to aesthetic considerations. It has been demonstrated that Australian cities benefited from colonial land policies of great foresight and from recent progressive planning legislation. As viable industrial and trade centres emphasizing port functions, they prove that a high proportion of waterfront land can be devoted to parks without jeopardizing their economies. As a result, the urban landscape is greatly enhanced and more recreational land is made available for the affluent society that enjoys increasingly greater leisure time. Surely Canadian cities should strive to emulate their Australian counter parts in the provision of coastal park land.

**An Act relating to the Planning and Development of Land within the State,* No. 20 of 1967, Section 53, Adelaide, South Australia, 1967, p. 50.

with a view to the possibilities of constant change in the structure of production that the hub is designed.

On both sides of the hub, along a distance of from ten to fifteen kilometres, amidst living nature, forest and parkland, isolated residential units are designed. They are completely set apart from the noxious influences of industrial production.

Many architects in the West look upon the dwelling of the future as unconfined to a definite locality. Your home, they tell us, will be a place in which you can fly, which you will be able to pack in a knapsack, in which you can ride on land and sail on the sea. Their ideas of this type of home for the future are derived from contemporary sociological research reflecting modern man's eagerness for change of place which prompts him every two or three years to move to a new residence. The architects of the team partly agree with these ideas. They maintain that portable homes are most suited for zones in which new lands are being reclaimed, agricultural areas, certain industrial and recreation zones. But most people, they claim, require permanent dwellings; portable homes are a hindrance to social intercourse within the community, to exchange of knowledge, preservation of traditions and cultural advancement.

Guided by what they believe to be the most rational size for a city, the Soviet architects have designed a residentail complex or city accommodating a population of no more than 100,000. Relations in space and the skyline of such a city is made up of the vertical shoot-ups of many-storied blocks of flats and horizontal stretches of public buildings. Residential areas are grouped around a well-developed municipal heart. With the city being 2—4 kilometres in diameter, they reach out on all sides to expanses of open nature.

It is planned not to have such new cities expand with population growth but to have new towns of the same type built. A perfected traffic system will make it possible to keep these residential complexes well distanced from manufacturing areas. Industrial growth around the hub and the increase of the new towns of population dispersal units could be likened to growth and multiplication of the living organism.

The design of the new city submitted by the New Population Dispersal team goes to show that in a time of the turbulent advances in all spheres of human endeavour, man will not only meet the requirements of the new age but will seek to preserve mankind's achievements from wanton destruction. The impetuous advance of our age must not overthrow the wisdom of the past millennia. Two basic elements of our modern era—man himself and the machine he has created will become the starting point for creating a coherent system of dimension relation in the population dispersal of the future. And that future begins today. In the Soviet Union we may call such important traffic roads like Moscow-Leningrad and Moscow-Gorky highways as prototypes of the hubs of the future.

JOHN C. PARKIN, PRCA, FRAIC, FRIBA
Chairman National Design Council.

city state

Brief excerpts from Mr. Parkin's address to The Canadian Standards Association in Winnipeg, Man., June 17, 1970.

Lacking a coherent doctrine for urban civilization such as those clearly defined in St. Augustine's "City of God" or Plato's "Republic", today we are faced with no certainties other than the certainty of accelerating change.

Since the founding of cities more than 5,000 years ago in Mesopotamia, the city and civilization have been synonymous.

If the city is an old phenomenon, the metropolis is a new one, having existed but from the beginning of the 19th century when London gained and maintained a population of one million. A yet larger urban concentration is now identifiable — the megalopolis. We have thus, in a mere 150 years, moved from the city to the metropolis to the megalopolis. By the end of this century, the majority of the world's population may well be accommodated in vast megalopolises, each on a scale of 20 million people or more. The largest of these, the Eastern Megalopolis (or "Boswash", for Boston-Washington) will contain a quarter of the people of the United States, or approximately 85 millions. Another will be of vital concern to Canada — the Great Lakes Megalopolis (or "Chipitts" for Chicago-Pittsburgh). That Toronto will be an economic and functional metropolis with GIM is fairly certain. If Montreal is not, the likelihood of Canada's survival as a single *nation* - state might be doubtful. Any study of nations in the year 2000 may be largely a study of megalopolises and regional governments within them.

Few nations in history have been able to restrain the growth of their Cities or City States for long.

You may recall the many attempts to curb the population of London over the centuries, each in turn, doomed failure. Similarly, it is futile to attempt to curb the growth of Montreal, Toronto or Vancouver. Rather, our efforts should be turned to the orderly shaping of their growth.

There is no doubt in my mind that Canada will see its Second Centennial. I believe, however, that Provincial Governments will find drastic change in *their* organization. I believe our Confederation in the 21st Century could consist of a great number of Regional Governments — some City, some Metropolitan, and a few Megalopolitan States, bound togehter in central and common purpose — to Canada itself.

The boundaries of these Regional States should reflect the natural definition and limits of the region in which they are located. The limits should be based on *real* criteria, among them being transportation, education, water and economics.

In other jurisdictions, certain criteria have been set forth to guide rapid urban development and regional growth. These include:

1. Sense of identity
2. Balance of interests
3. Adequate financial base
4. Size large enough for efficient economic performance
5. Boundaries usable by other institutions
6. Community participation
7. The same criteria to apply irrespective of whether the regional government would be one of a single tier or a two-tier system within a region

If the predictions in the Report of the Commission on Targets for Economic Development prove out, then we will see varied and profound changes taking place within Manitoba during the next decade.

Growth in technological and managerial knowledge will be opening up whole new frontiers in northern and rural Manitoba. The possibility of enriched nuclear power and the certainty of well developed hydroelectric power will all contribute to the province's growth as a regional chemical manufacturing centre, a focal point of advanced food processing technology and a significant new Canadian resource in scientific research.

The mid Canada corridor concept has enormous ramifications for Manitoba and particularly for Greater Winnipeg which could and should be a logical link with and jumping off point for key development and growth centres to the north.

The north is going to be developed. That much is evident. A stong start has already been made. And it is to be hoped that this development evidences both a concerted long range plan of action as well as an acceptance of the north on its own terms — for what it is and what it can be and that it demands its own kind of architecture — that reflects the total socio-economic, physical and cultural environment that is uniquely the north.

Excerpts from a statement on Baltimore's Economic Development Programme to New Jersey Industrial Development Association.

What is a city and why is it located where it is? The location might be a historic accident or it may be because of obvious natural advantages - a natural harbor like Baltimore, or coal deposits like Pittsburgh, or the conlfux of transportation carriers like St. Louis. I would define cities as "masses of people living and working together." We talk about "problems of cities." I believe we should talk about "problems of people." It's a different emphasis which gives us a clearer perspective.

All cities supply intensive contact among many individuals and firms. This is made possible by the high density of business and population, which facilitates communities among executives and firms.

I call this "agglomeration economics." Business attracts other businesses since they all help one another either as customers, suppliers, or service people. Input-output charts are used for the same purpose, since input-output charts show who supplies what, and who buys what. Input-output charts show that industry is industry's best customer, i.e. - the chemical industry buys 40% of the output of the chemical industry.

An article on input-output analysis on the front page of the Wall Street Journal stated that this is a system of economic analysis which has recently caught the fancy of big business in a big way. Forbes magazine, and Fortune magazine, in the past issues, have also carried stories on input-output analysis.

We tend to think of a city in its entirety, but there is no homogenous community. In every city there are many, many diverse wants, desires, goals, and aims — even among the "Black Community."

The people on welfare have formed their own union, and politic for bigger and better welfare programs, even for Christmas bonuses. The Educational Department wants hundreds of millions for new and better schooling facilities. The engineers want more expressways. Everybody wants more and more — more parks, more recreational facilities, better mass transit facilities, better police protection, higher pay, more holidays, less working hours. I heard Don Schaefer, President of the Baltimore City Council, say, "If you give me enough money, I can solve all of the problems of our city, but unfortunately, there just isn't that much available in the city."

Let's go a step further, what is a good city?

There are two ways of defining a *good* city. One is architectural in emphasis; the other is sociological. The architectural approach emphasizes buildings and vistas; what can be seen of the city.

Certainly appearance is important to any city, but conceiving a good city should not be limited solely to physical, inanimate things. People must be considered.

In the sociological approach, the city is viewed as an arena of activity, of human concerns and problems. The sociological approach focuses on affairs rather than things, but its weakness is that when the city is defined in terms of activities, its entirety is difficult to picture and objectives become associated with various problems of the city: traffic, congestion, housing, education, delinquency, crime, dope addiction, poverty, slums, blight, and urban sprawl.

At some point in the process of improving conditions, each of these problems must be isolated and attacked separately. But this effort is handicapped unless there is a synoptic view of the city to which the separate decisions may be referred. There are many solutions for each problem, but some solutions may aggravate other problems. A housing shortage can be alleviated by constructing apartments, but this may increase traffic congestion, delinquency, and blight. A shortage of parking can be overcome by rerouting traffic so that the demand for space is reduced, or by building parking garages. The second solution may encourage increased use of already overloaded streets and further choke traffic. An overall view of the city facilitates intelligent choice between alternative solutions.

The architectural and sociological approaches complement each other. Both are needed to achieve the conception of a good city as an ideal whole, but it must be kept in mind that the city is an arena of human activities and concerns.

Why do I say this? And what do I mean? I mean that manufacturing is becoming less important to cities and the service industries more important. One of the reasons for this is the lack of large parcels of land in cities, but an equally important factor is that the service economy is growing at a much faster rate than manufacturing in our overall economy. In the service economy are included wholesale and retail trade, government, and people such as professional, personal, business and repair services.

VIEWS AND VISIONS

EDWARD DE LUCA
Chairman, Economic Development Commission, Baltimore, USA

city- JOHN C. PARKIN

Population shifts will continue as more people are concentrated in fewer centres. These shifts will bring attendant challenges in such areas as construction, urban renewal, transportation, traffic systems, etc. Urbanization on the Prairies is expected to undergo the fastest relative rate of change of any region in Canada. Within the next decade Winnipeg will be facing those challenges currently faced by larger metropolitans in other parts of Canada and stands to benefit from their experience.

If the present momentum is unchanged, Greater Winnipeg may have increased its population by 50% by the year 1980. During this period its concern must be to respond to the need for physical and infra structural change, to seek better use of land and capital and maintain a continuing concern for the quality of life of its citizens.

Just as a capital city tends to reflect the characteristics of its province, so the central core area of a city should reflect the characteristics of the larger metropolis.

Therefore much of what happens in the next decade must either start with or be reflected in Greater Winnipeg's central downtown area.

In Winnipeg, a start has been made of some significance whereby in one feldswoop, two basic objectives have been achieved:

1. Separation of vehicular and pedestrian traffic
2. Virtual elimination of the adverse effects of severe annual climatic extremes

We have in Winnipeg the beginnings of underground climate controlled pedestrial concourses which relieve the pressure on major traffic arteries developed in concert with above ground pedestrian skyway concourses, both of which provide the beginnings of an effective system of linkages that can move people from place to place year round and independent of weather.

Not only is population shifting and continuing to shift within the province, it is also shifting within the city itself, as the needs of population segments change. Recognition of this continuous movement on the population spectrum must be taken into consideration in planning for a period of growth and development that will ensure Greater Winnipeg's continuation as a viable socio-economic and structural entity with a minimum of obsolesence — that characteristic by-product of much urban planning that has tended to cripple the quality of life and socio economic development of many North American centres.

Part and parcel of this planning must be orderly and uniform building doces and a well planned aggressive program of urban renewal — not just urban renewal as it has come to be known — wholesale clearance of depressed residential areas to make way for newer low rental housing developments — but urban renewal that also includes rejuvenation of older central commercial areas, rehabilitation of other areas to provide new schools, parks and other public improvements, infusion of public capital as an inducement to private investment — urban renewal as a means of restoring urban pride.

The architects of Canada often appear to be intimidated by the views of those from abroad. Perhaps this is understandable in the evolution of our culture. Thus far Canadian architects, like many of our writers and artists, appear to have sought approval of those critical magazines largely based in New York. For approval, many have molded their styles to the current vogue as established in New York, Philadelphia, Chicago or Paris. This is, of course, part of the Canadian dilemma, that acceptance elsewhere must be a condition precedent to recognition here in Canada.

The kind of American critic whose opinion we should take to heart is Daniel Parrick Moynihan, Director of the Joint Centre for Urban Studies, Harvard/MIT, and principal advisor on urban affairs to President Nixon. He believes that the American sense of community and "shared conviction" has been impaired because of "the retreat from architecture and public buildings as a conscious element of public policy and a purposeful instrument for the expression of public purposes. The concept of private affluence and public squalor is a familiar one and correct as far as it goes. But save for a rare person such as John Kenneth Galbraith it rarely extends to the notion that public squalor includes the penury and squalor of public buildings and city planning."

I share the view of Moynihan that "Good or bad Architecture is not an option. *It is as fundamental a sign of the competence of Government as will be found. It has been often said that men who build bad buildings are bad Governors. A people that persists in electing such men is opting for bad Government".*

In conclusion, may I draw attention to that most necessary ingredient in the organization of our environment, and that is *human* or *communal scale.* What we will need then, are a series of either three or four levels of government which will reflect *firstly*, the neighbourhood or community; *secondly*, the City or Metropolitan-State; and *thirdly*, the Nation-State. Clearly, other governmental levels are less relevant.

While part of the problem of communal scale is one of technology and insensitive institutions, the question of sheer size is an overwhelming obstacle; in most cases local governments are too small to take care of big problems or two big to handle small ones. There is also the question of how to reach this citizen.

The resurrection of the neighbourhood with citizen participation in a meaningful way in total neighbourhood life is a subject of much concern among planners today. Daniel Bell, to whom I have previously referred, speaks of "...viable smaller communities within the City State. For it is there that the political decisions which directly affect our lives are shaped.

The problem is twofold: how to achieve some realistic functions for local communal groups in a national society and how to give the individual a sense of active participation in the policy."

Much discussion revolves about the size of communal units; suggestions range from 100,000 to 300,000. Anything beyond that puts the possibility of what Lewis Mumford describes as the *'humanly lovealbe city'* in jeopardy.

On another occasion Mumford commented: *"Unless human needs and human interactions and human responses are the first consideration, the City in any valid sense cannot be said to exist."*

In 1947 total employment in the United States was 57 million; in 1967 it was 74 million. Virtually all of the net increase occurred in institutions that provide services — such as banks, hospitals, retail stores, and schools.

The *increase* in employment in the field of education between 1950 and 1960 was greater than the total number employed in the steel, copper, and aluminum industries in either year. The *increase* in employment in the field of health between 1950 and 1960 was greater than the total number employed in automobile manufacturing in either year. The *increase* in employment in financial firms between 1950 and 1960 was greater than total employment in mining in 1960.

The service sector's share of total employment has grown from approximately 40 percent in 1929 to over 55 percent in 1967. Between 1947 and 1965, there was an increase of 13 million jobs in the service sector compared with an increase of only 4 million in industry. The number of service workers has more than tripled since 1940. The number of women workers now amounts of 31.4 million, or 38½% of the total labor force.

However, before you write off manufacturing, keep in mind that earnings in manufacturing are much higher than in the service industries. For example, average earnings in 1969 in manufacturing were $3.19 an hour vs. $2.30 in retailing, which is one of the largest segments of the service industry.

Systems Engineering is a new way to approach complex problems and develop solutions. It has been used for our space program, for the moon-landings, for our global defense strategy, and for developing the high speed train service between Boston and Washington. The computer, which has made possible the rapid storage and manipulation of huge amounts of data, has made possible the application of systems engineering.

Systems Engineering is hard to define. A simple definition is: "identify the big objective instead of worrying about the smaller pieces of the problem." A more complicated definition is that it is a cycle of:

1. Defining objevtives
2. Defining alternate means of reaching these objectives through the compiling and analysis of pertinent facts
3. Evaluating the alternatives in terms of effectiveness and costs
4. Questioning the objectives and other assumptions underlying the analysis

Archimedes, some 200 years B.C., came pretty close to defining systems engineering when he said that the way to solve any *problem* was:

1. Have a clear definition of the problem
2. Get all the facts
3. Analyze the facts
4. Develop the best solution based on the analysis
5. Recheck the first four steps to make sure nothing was overlooked.

If complexity is a prerequisite for the application of systems engineering, cities should be at the top of the list. I don't mind admitting, though, that I'm somewhat perplexed when it comes to the application of systems engineering to cities. How do you define the objectives of a city? How do you set priorities on these objectives? How do you sell different groups on the objectives and priorities? Will all cities have the same objectives?

We could debate these questions at length without coming up with answers satisfactory to many of us. Yet all of us will agree, and can give many examples, of peice-meal, future problem-breeding solutions which are going on in all our cities because there is no overall objective, or overall view of the cities problems. In Baltimore we decided to build more expressways, more schools, a better mass transit system, industrial parks, a better airport, etc., etc. Many solutions to these problems create other problems. For example, our expressway was routed through an area which would require the demolition of several hundred houses. We already are short of housing in the city, so this would aggravate the situation. In another area the expressway takes 126 acres of industrial land, and forces the relocation of many firms. Some of the firms will probably move out of the city, so we lose taxes and jobs. When we lose jobs, we aggravate our unemployment and welfare problems. In another area of the city a low cost housing project is planned. The schools in this area are already overcrawded, and the new housing would necessitate building additional schools. No school had been planned for this area in the education budget. In order to alleviate this kind of situation, City Council President Don Schaefer set up a committee composed of the directors of the Planning Commission, the Housing and Community Development Agency, the Education Department, the Economic Development Commission, and himself, to insure that he plans of one department would not affect the plans of another department. This actually is one step towards Systems Engineering.

SAINTE-AGATHE-DES-MONTS

CENTRE TOURISQUE

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Institut d'Urbanisme
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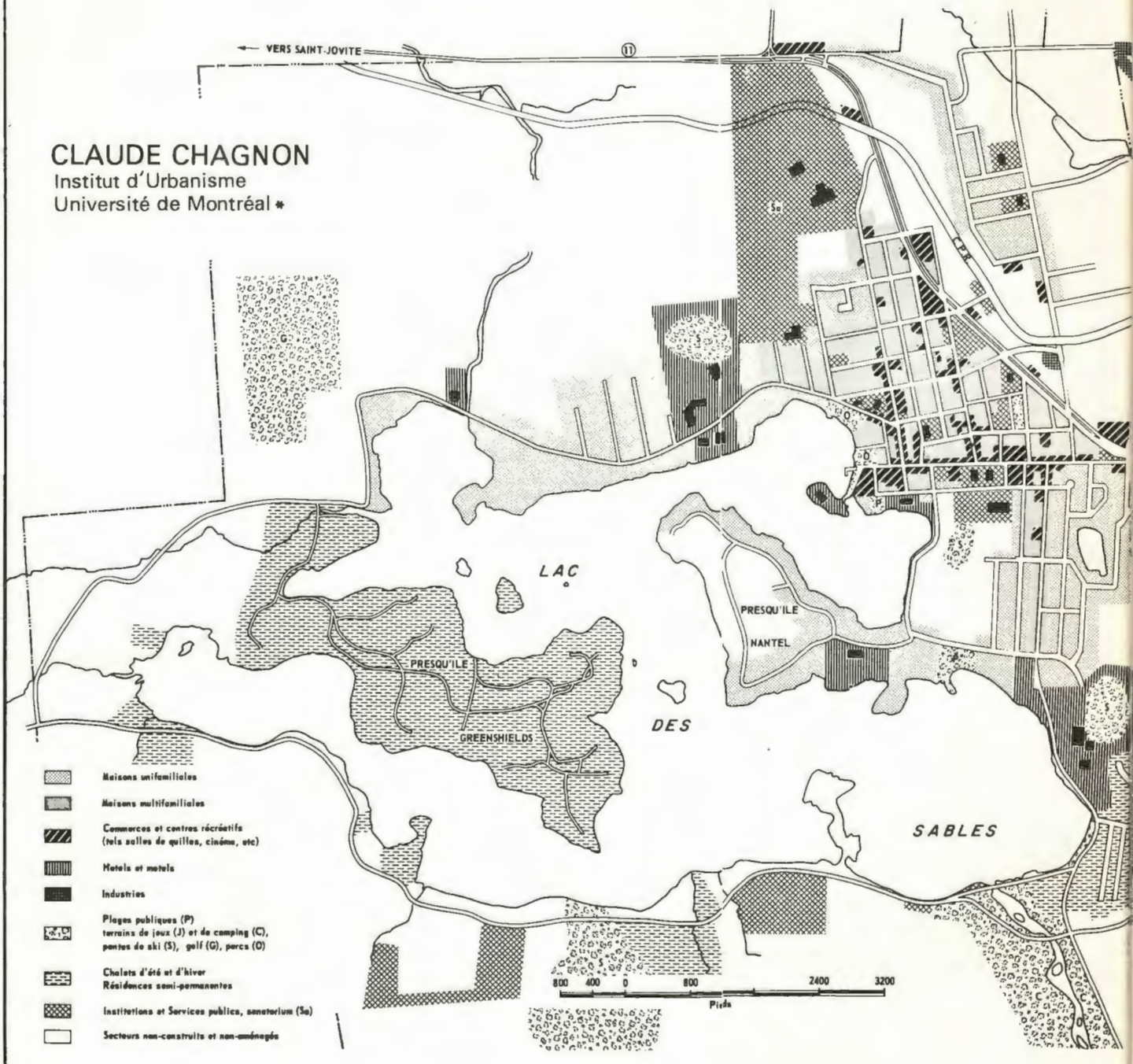

* Article publié dans les *Cahiers de Géographie de Québec,* No. 28, avril 1969, Presses de l'Université Laval.

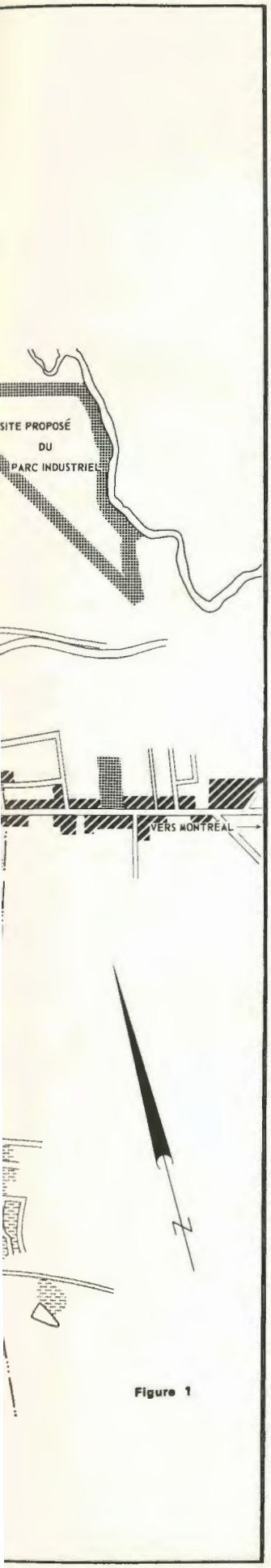

Figure 1

De tous les centres de villégiature qui se développent en nombre et en qualité dans la province de Québec, les Laurentides du nord de Montréal restent encore le centre le plus populaire et le plus fréquenté. Lieu de repos traditionnel des Montréalais, elles n'en attirent pas moins une importante clientèle américaine et canadienne. La région présente toutes les formes de l'activité touristique grâce à la grande variété d'attractions qu'on y trouve et à un aménagement qui permet de recevoir des centaines de milliers de visiteurs annuellement, chacun y étant attiré par un aspect particulier du tourisme.

Le noyau de cette région est constitué par la vallée de la rivière du Nord, du rebord du bouclier au nord de Saint-Jérôme, à Sainte-Agathe-des-Monts. Cette vallée renferme les plus grands centres urbains, les axes de communication les plus achalandés et la plus forte concentration de chalets et d'hôtels de toute la région du nord de Montréal. A l'extrémité nord-ouest de ce noyau, Sainte-Agathe-des-Monts reste le premier centre touristique des Laurentides depuis les années 1890 alors qu'on entreprit la construction des premiers hôtels au lac des Sables.

Celui-ci, d'une longueur, en ligne droite, de 2.2 milles n'en déploie pas moins un rivage de quelque 12 milles à cause des nombreuses baies et de deux immenses presqu'îles qui se rejoignent presqu'au milieu du lac. Lorsque les trois pionniers, qui remontaient la vallée de la rivière du Nord, pendant l'été 1849, l'aperçurent presque sur leur chemin, fascinés par la beauté de ce lac entouré de collines aux pentes douces, ils décidèrent de s'établir dans ces lieux. L'année suivante, ils amenèrent leurs épouses qui, comme eux, durent faire le trajet à pied à partir de Saint-Jérôme, à quelque 25 milles plus au sud.

Le site semblait bien choisi, puisque 27 groupes de colons vinrent s'y établir de 1849 à 1861 et 35 groupes, de 1861 à 1865. Le premier prêtre vint s'établir dans la place en 1861 et le premier curé fut officiellement nommé en 1862. Il est à remarquer que la même année, soit le 23 juin 1862, la municipalité de Sainte-Agathe (paroisse) a été érigée en vertu du code municipal. Quelque 33 ans plus tard, le 7 juillet 1895 précisément, était érigée la municipalité du village de Sainte-Agathe, tandis que la ville de Sainte-Agathe-des-Monts était incorporée le 5 mars 1915. Trois ans auparavant, en 1912, Ivry-sur-le-Lac avait détaché, pour son propre compte, un certain territoire de la paroisse de Sainte-Agathe et Val-David fit de même en 1921.

Le premier hôtel pour les voyageurs fut construit en 1866 par monsieur Noé Touchette. En 1892, le chemin de fer *Montréal et Occidental* y établissait une gare et reliait en même temps, par téléphone, Sainte-Agathe avec Saint-Jérôme. La compagnie de téléphone Bell prit la relève du service téléphonique en 1900, peu de temps avant que le Canadien Pacifique ne devienne propriétaire de la ligne de chemin de fer. Nous ignorons encore jusqu'à quel point la construction du chemin de fer fut un apport pour cette ville, mais chose certaine, elle ouvrit définitivement la région aux touristes.

En effet, dès 1893, monsieur Louis Beaulieu achetait du gouvernement une île située près de la municipalité, sur le lac des Sables, et il y construisait un hôtel connu aujourd'hui sous le nom de Castel des Monts. C'est à cette époque aussi que de riches et importants personnages firent l'acquisition de grands domaines autour du lac des Sables, fermant presque complètement son accès. L'industrie ne prit point racine dans la ville, sauf quelques moulins à scie. La plupart des hommes passaient l'hiver dans les chantiers. Mais, à cause de l'attrait du lac, de la beauté du paysage typiquement laurentien, avec ses douces collines et ses falaises de granit, l'hôtellerie prit un essor appréciable.

Sainte-Agathe, en effet, située près de 1300 pieds au-dessus du niveau de la mer, jouit d'un climat frais et sec. La température, pendant la période qui va de mai à septembre, varie de 60 à 75 degrés F. Les moustiques sortent en juin, mais disparaissent avec les chaleurs et le pollen y est quasi inexistant. En plus de jouir d'un climat sain, la région, de par sa position face au sud-ouest, reçoit une abondante précipitation de neige en hiver, soit une moyenne de 134.8 pouces par année[1]. Elle connaît donc un avantage marqué pour les sports d'hiver.

SAINTE-AGATHE-DES-MONTS

Pendant ce temps, peu à peu, le réseau routier s'améliora; la route 11, à double voie, fut achevée vers la fin de la deuxième guerre mondiale et la première autoroute fut parachevée au début des années soixante, jusqu'à dix milles au sud de Sainte-Agathe. Le corridor de la rivière du Nord ayant été choisi très tôt comme zone de repos et de vacances par les gens de la région de Montréal, Sainte-Agathe, à son extrémité nord, a vu sa croissance et sa prospérité liées à l'importance grandissante du tourisme et de la villégiature. Aujourd'hui, la ville de Sainte-Agathe compte près de 6500 habitants. La majorité de la population active est occupée dans le commerce, les services et l'hôtellerie, servant une population de touristes et de villégiateurs qui font plus que tripler la population locale en belle saison.

On peut compter dans les limites de la ville six installations de ski équipées de tous genres de monte-pentes. Depuis quelque années, Sainte-Agathe est devenue aussi un centre d'attraction très important pour les adeptes de l'auto-neige. Enfin, un Carnaval des Neiges, avec tout ce que cela peut comporter de réjouissances, de réunions et de compétitions, couronne la saison d'hiver depuis 27 ans.

La saison d'été n'est pas moins animée. On compte, le long du lac, trois plages publiques bien aménagées ainsi qu'un terrain de camping. Ce terrain, construit avec les fonds A.R.D.A., occupe le site d'un ancien marécage aménagé pour offrir 173 sites de tentes et 77 emplacements de roulottes. Situé à un mille du centre de la ville, il offre toutes les facilités et le confort des camping modernes. Ouvert au début de la saison d'été 1968, sa popularité s'est avérée telle qu'on a dû, à maintes reprises, accepter le double des campeurs prévus en réduisant de moitié la superficie de chacun des emplacements. A proximité, on trouve un théâtre d'été, une boîte à chanson, une grande plage publique, une base d'hydravions et un petit établissement de pisciculture.

Cependant, il y a très peu de chalets de villégiature autour du lac des Sables lui-même. Ceci est dû au fait, mentionné plus tôt, que de grands domaines, acquis à la fin du siècle dernier et au tout début de ce siècle, en ont fermé l'accès presque complètement. Nous ne retrouvons qu'une petite agglomération un peu en retrait du sud-est du lac, près du camping, et une autre assez récente sur le Greenshields' Point, immense presqu'île qui s'avance dans la partie ouest du lac. Ces deux enclaves comptent au total moins de cent chalets, ce qui est très peu pour un lac aussi grand. L'autre presqu'île, face à la première et sur le même axe, a été récemment ouverte à la construction domiciliaire seulement et constitue un des quartiers les plus cossus de la ville. Pour les touristes, non-propriétaires de chalets et non-fervents de camping, il reste les hôtels.

Ceux-ci, au nombre de quatroze, disposent au total de 567 chambres à moins d'un mille du centre de la ville, soit 9% des hôtels et 13.6% des chambres de la région. A cause de leur construction ancienne, ces hôtels ne sont plus très à la mode et leurs propriétaires rencontrent de sérieux problèmes de rénovation. Le plus ancien, le Castel des Monts, bien que maintes fois rénové, reçoit presqu'exclusivement des touristes de religion orthodoxe juive. Le Chalet Inn vieillit avec ses propriétaires qui ne refuseraient pas une offre d'achat convenable. La Marquise, après avoir découragé de nombreux propriétaires, vient de trouver un autre acquéreur qui l'a rebaptisée l'Auberge des Sables. Le Manor House, le plus récent et le mieux équipé des hôtels de la ville, a fermé ses portes en 1965. L'année suivante, racheté par un syndicat d'hommes d'affaires de Sainte-Agathe, il fut partiellement rénové et rebaptisé l'Hôtel de la Calèche. Après un peu plus de deux ans, la nouvelle administration, se voyant en face d'une faillite éventuelle, vendit l'hôtel à une organisation de loisirs qui l'a transformé en colonie de vacances et auberge de la jeunesse. L'Hôtel de la Calèche est devenu l'Auberge de la Calèche.

Sauf l'hôtel Sainte-Agathe, tous ces hôtels reçoivent chaque année les mêmes clients, venant toujours aux mêmes périodes de l'année. Cette clien-

Photo 1 Nous observons, sur cette photo-mosaique, l'expansion de la ville de Sainte-Agathe-des-Monts autour du lac des Sables. La construction domiciliaire, concentrée surtout au nord-est du lac, s'étale strictement selon le plan du cadastre sauf sur le presqu'ile Nantel (N) où le developpement récent est plus conforme à la topographie. Le chemin de fer du Canadien Pacifique (CP) et la route 11 coupent la ville en deux secteurs de dimension inégale.

Une zone de chalets d'été se retrouve en arrière de la plage publique (P) au coin sud-est du lac, l'autre zone étant située sur le presqu'ile Greenshields (G) qui occupe la partie ouest du lac. Un marécage, sillonné par un ruisseau au sud-est, a été comblé et transformé en terrain de camping (C) en 1967 (voir photo 3). Toutes les terres de la rive sud sont occupées par de grands domaines, sauf le secteur central, site des pentes de ski du Mont-Sainte-Agathe (S). Le "Laurentian Golf Club" (L) occupe le secteur défriché au nord-ouest.

Photo Q64536-122,124, Photothèque provinciale de l'Air, Ministère des Terres et des Forêts, Québec, 1964. Echelle 1:15,840 avant réduction.

tèle des principaux hôtels est composée de 70% à 80% de clients venant des U.S.A., surtout de la région de New York. Le reste des clients vient de Montréal et de ses environs et aussi de Toronto et d'Ottawa. Le ski attire évidemment beaucoup de gens, puisque Sainte-Agathe est située à environ une heure d'automobile de Montréal, mais les pistes d'auto-neige commencent également à recevoir de nombrux adeptes de l'extérieur.

Avec toutes ces attractions hivernales et estivales, il semble bien que Sainte-Agathe reste encore le centre touristique le plus important des Laurentides, d'autant plus que les plus fortes concentrations de chalets se retrouvent encore dans la région même de Sainte-Agathe, autour du lac Manitou, du lac Brûlé, du lac à la Truite et de nombreux autres petits lacs près de Sainte-Lucie et de Saint-Adolphe. Des études exhaustives et comparatives entre Sainte-Agathe, Sainte-Adèle, Saint-Sauveur et Saint-Jovite viendraient probablement confirmer cette affirmation.

L'équipement commercial, professionnel et de service semble bien adéquat. Nous avons, en effet, compté 28 établissements de vente et distribution d'aliments et de boisson, 31 magasins de vêtements, 11 magasins de meubles et appareils électriques, 5 vendeurs d'automobiles et 17 stations de service. Nous comptons aussi 5 banques, 7 médecins, 3 dentistse, un hôpital, 2 résidences funéraires, 3 pharmacies, 4 notaires, 4 avocats, un poste de radio local ainsi qu'une centrale téléphonique. Enfin, 17 restaurants, salles à manger et casse-croûte semblent ne jamais manquer de clients.

Le secteur industriel est beaucoup moins important, puisque la ville ne compte actuellement que trois établissements manufacturiers : une usine de matériaux de construction, une fabrique de meubles de style canadien (meubles Maria-Chapdelaine) et un atelier de confection de vêtements de sport. L'administration de la ville essaie d'attirer l'industrie légère, afin de régler un problème crucial de chômage et d'assurer à la ville une prospérité plus stable que celle apportée par les fluctuations du tourisme.

Malgré l'attraction touristique évidente et l'équipement commercial et de service imposant, Sainte-Agathe se trouve aux prises avec un certain nombre de problèmes qui proviennent du vieillissement des infrastructures. Tout le secteur central de la ville, où près de 40% des bâtiments ont plus de 40 ans, a besoin d'être modernisé. On estime même que 27% des bâtiments ont besoin de réparations majeures ou devraient être démolis.

Le conseil de ville et la population se rendent bien compte de l'état de leur ville et souhaitent être en mesure de lancer un programme précis de rénovation dans deux secteurs très importants de la ville. Ce programme, soumis par un urbaniste-conseil, aura pour résultat d'améliorer l'habitat médiocre; de favoriser l'essor de la construction; de mettre en valeur le territoire en bordure du lac des Sables; d'améliorer le réseau des voies locales et régionales et de pourvoir au stationnement presqu'inexistant; de permettre la réfection des services inadéquats : pavage, trottoirs, égoûts, aqueduc; de procéder à l'aménagement des espaces libres; et, enfin, de modifier l'utilisation des services communautaires. On espère ainsi stimuler l'économie touristique résidentielle, commerciale et industrielle. Dans ses grandes lignes, ce plan est accepté par la population, mais celle-ci et le conseil de ville restent fortement divisés sur plusieurs questions de détails. Le souffle de ce vent de changement a certainement eu pour effet de réveiller la population et il est très intéressant de suivre dans le journal local l'évoulution des nombreuses polémiques.

Ce plan de rénovation vient préciser des concepts et des connaissances autrefois confuses et il peut certainement servir de base à une coordination efficace entre les habitants de la ville et entre ceux-ci et le conseil de ville, à condition qu'une animation sociale dynamique soutenue prenne forme et que tous recherchent sincèrement l'intérêt commun. Nous croyons que c'est là une condition essentielle pour que Sainte-Agathe garde sa place privilégiée au coeur des Laurentides.

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The Honourable Louis J. Robichaud,
Premier of New Brunswick, in a
letter to Mr, George P. Mackie, Chairman
of the Council of the Association's New Brunswick
Division, August 5, 1970.

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